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SHIFTING SOURCES OF FINANCING EDUCATION AND THE TAXPAYER REVOLT

John F. Due, Professor, Department of Economics

#565

College of Commerce and Business Administration University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

ere unprofitable but economically justified are important at ents. At the moment, proposed deregulation of the railroad ncertainty about the future of abandonment and alternatives ubsidy programs.

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April 1979

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Summary:

The purpose of the paper is to examine shifting sources of the financing of education, the origins of the taxpayer revolt, and its significance for education finance. There has occurred a marked shift of financing education from local to state levels, but with a wide variation among states. A major effect has been coreduce the relative reliance upon property taxes. On the whole, state-local tax burdens are slightly regressive, but not markedly so, by income group, but the variation among states is great. The overall pattern has tended to become less regressive. The taxpayer revolt is the product of a number of forces, but not primarily increased tax burdens, which have not been rising overall, in recent years, relative to GNP. Among primary sources of revolt appear to be the dislike of inflation, a dissatisfaction with many regulatory measures and limits beyong which persons are unwilling to go in providing welfare assistance and protection of the rights of minorities. California experience suggests that education was not the primary target of the protest. But nevertheless, education, depending on the property tax for nearly half of its support, is almost certain to suffer.

This paper was prepared for conference on Efficiency and Equity in Educational Finance, University of Illinois, Urbana, May 3-5, 1979.

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SHIFTING SOURCES OF FINANCING EDUCATION AND THE TAXPAYER REVOLT.*

John F. Due, Professor of Economics, Univ. of Illinois, Urbana

The financing of education, perhaps more than any one governmental activity, is confronted with a major hazard in the form of what we have come to call the "taxpayer revolt". A question of major importance is: what has caused this "revolt?" What implications does it have for education? As a preliminary step it is necessary to review the shifts that have occurred over the years in the financing of education and the major sources of state tax revenue—the growing source of education finance.

PART I. CHANGING PATTERNS OF STATE AND LOCAL FINANCE Changing Sources of School Finance

Table 1 shows the very substantial shift that has occurred over the last four decades from local to state financing. In the 1930 fiscal year, only 17 percent of the cost of financing education came from state sources, 83 percent from local. By 1941-42 the local share had fallen to 67%, by 1961-62, 57%, in recent years to 48 percent, the state share rising to 44% (the remaining 8% being Federal). The shift has been slow and steady, propelled by opposition to higher property taxes and the desire for equalization of educational opportunities by region.

But the trend has been by no means uniform among the states, as revealed very clearly in Table 2. In Hawaii, the support is almost entirely state; in Alaska only 17% of the total is raised locally, and in

The author is greatly indebted to the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations and the Tax Foundation for the use of material compiled by them.

Public Elementary and Secondary School Revenue by Government Source of Funds

Selected School Years 1929-30-1977-78

		Amount ^b (millions)				Percentage distribution					
School year	Total	Federal	State	Local*	Total	Federal	State	Local*			
929-30	\$2,088.6	\$7.3	\$353.7	\$1,727.6	100.0	.4	16.9	82.7			
933-34		21.5	423.2	1,365.9	100.0	1.2	23.4	75.4			
937–38		26.5	656.0	1,540.4	100.0	1.2	29.5	69.3			
941-42		34.3	760.0	1,622.3	100.0	1.4	31.5	67.1			
945–46		41.4	1,062.1	1,956.4	100.0	1.4	34.7	1			
949-50		155.8	2,165.7	3,115.5	100.0	2.9	39.8	57.3			
953-54	7,866.9	355.2	2,944.1	4.567.5	100.0	4.5	37.4	58.1			
955-56		441.4	3,828.9	5,416.4	100.0	4.6	39.5	55.9			
957-58	12,181.5	486.5	4,800.4	1 ' 1	100.0	4.4	39.1	56.5			
959-60		651.6	5,768.0	8,326.9	100.0	4.4	39.1	56.5			
961-62		761.0	6,789.2	9,977.5	100.0	4.3	38.7	57.0			
963-64	20,420.0	865.8	8,113.9	11,440.3	100.0	4.2	39.7	56.1			
96566		1,997.0	9,920.2	13,439.7	100.0	7.9	39.1	53.0			
.967–68	31,903.1	2,806.5	12,275.5	16,821.1	100.0	8.8	38.5	52.7			
969-70		3,219.6	16,062.8	20,984.6	100.0	8.0	39.9	52.1			
971-72		4,525.0	19,133.3	26,402.4	100.0	8.9	38.3	52.8			
972–73		4,525.0	20,843.5	26,749.4	100.0	8.7	40.0	51.3			
.973-74	58,230.9	4,930.4	24,113.4	29,187.1	100.0	8.5	41.4	50.1			
1974–75	61,099.6	4,741.6	26,659.1	29,698.9	100.0	7.8	43.6	48.6			
1975–76	70,802.8	6,210.3	31,065.4	33,527.1	100.0	8.8	43.9	47.4			
1977–78	80,925.0	6,575.0	35,692.0	38,658.0	100.0	8.1	44.1	47.8			

^{*} Beginning in 1959-60 data include Alaska and Hawaii. Data for 1977-78 are estimated.

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b Excludes nonrevenue receipts principally from bond sales, loans, and sale of property; includes in-kind payments.

o Includes revenue receipts of intermediate units and minor private contributions.

Source: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; National Center for Education Statistics.

ESTIMATED REVENUE RECEIPTS FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY **SCHOOLS, BY GOVERNMENTAL SOURCE, BY STATE, 1976-77**

State Total Federal State Cherry Federal Cherry Che						Perce	ntage Dis	tribution	of Receip	rts
Cocal and Coca		Ri	svenue Rece	oipts by Sour	ce				Exc	luding
State Total Federal State Other State Other Other State Other Ot			(in m	illions)			Total		Fe	deral
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United Stetes							_			
Alabama	State	Total	Federali	Stete	Other	Federel	State	Other	State	Other
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Artanase										
Arkanses 517 82 261 174 15.9 50.4 33.8 60.0 40.0 California 8.6.35 928 3.163 4.445 10.9 37.1 52.1 41.6 86.4 Colorado 968 55 380 524 6.7 39.2 54.1 42.0 58.0 Connacticut 1,207 63 371 774 5.2 30.7 64.1 32.4 67.6 District of Columbia 283 43 — 220 18.4 — 83.8 21.9 75.7 24.3 District of Columbia 283 43 — 220 18.4 — 83.8 21.9 75.7 24.3 District of Columbia 283 43 — 220 18.4 — 83.8 6.2 41.8 Georgia 1,216 145 643 427 11.9 52.9 35.1 60.1 39.9 164waii 293 40 242 11 13.7 82.4 3.9 95.7 4.3 Idaho 266 30 125 111 11.3 47.0 41.6 53.0 47.0 Illinois 4,225 324 2,001 1,900 7.7 47.4 45.0 65.3 48.7 Indiana 1,723 101 866 75.7 5.8 50.2 43.8 53.4 48.8 fows 1,117 54 441 622 4.8 39.5 55.7 41.6 68.5 fows 1,117 54 441 622 4.8 39.5 55.7 41.6 68.5 Louisiana 1,163 171 671 320 14.7 57.7 27.6 67.7 32.3 Maine 326 24 1569 106 505 254 12.2 684 29.4 88.5 33.5 Maine 326 24 1569 146 7.5 48.1 44.4 82.0 48.0 Maryland 1,641 79 566 895 52 36.7 66.1 38.7 32.3 Maine 326 24 1689 10.0 2.0 59.0 6.0 59.2 34.8 61.3 36.3 37.3 Maryland 1,641 79 566 895 52 36.7 66.1 38.7 61.3 Massachusetts 2,337 90 815 1,431 3.9 34.8 81.3 36.3 35.7 63.3 48.0 Massachusetts 2,337 90 815 1,431 3.9 34.8 81.3 36.3 35.7 63.3 Maine 30.2 26 165 121 8.7 56.3 36.7 66.1 38.7 61.3 Massachusetts 2,337 90 815 1,431 3.9 34.8 81.3 36.3 37.3 68.2 Michigan 3,532 183 1.259 2.090 5.2 36.8 56.1 38.7 61.3 8.0 9.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.7										
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District of Columbia 283 43 220 18.4 63.8 100.0										
Georgia										
Hawaii	Florida	2,145	216	1,123	806	10.1	52.3	37.6	68.2	41.8
Idaho	Georgia	- 1,216	145	643	427	11.9	52.9	35.1	60.1.	39.9
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North Carolina 1,681 254 1,097 330 15.1 65.3 19.6 76.9 23.1 North Dakota 202 17 97 88 8.6 47.9 43.5 52.4 47.6 Ohio 3,213 188 1,311 1,713 6.9 40.8 53.3 43.4 56.6 Oklahoma 831 94 446 291 11.3 53.7 35.0 60.5 39.6 Oregon 806 44 232 530 5.5 28.8 85.8 30.4 69.6 Pennsylvania 4,371 376 1,952 2,044 8.8 44.8 48.8 51.2 Rhode Island 285 18 115 152 6.2 40.4 53.4 43.1 56.9 South Carolina 825 118 449 257 14.3 54.5 31.2 63.6 36.4 South Dakota 198 24 28 144 <t< th=""><th></th><th>405</th><th>74</th><th>250</th><th>72</th><th>18.2</th><th>64.1</th><th>17.7</th><th>78.3</th><th>21.7</th></t<>		405	74	250	72	18.2	64.1	17.7	78.3	21.7
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Texas 4,070 444 1,918 1,708 10.9 47.1 42.0 52.9 47.1 Uteh 446 38 235 172 8.6 52.8 38.7 57.7 42.3 Vermont 168 12 45 111 7.0 28.9 86.1 28.8 71.2 Virginia 1,845 158 540 947 9.6 32.8 57.6 38.3 63.7 Washington 1,290 94 821 375 7.3 63.6 29.1 68.6 31.4 West Virginia 551 55 341 155 10.0 61.9 28.1 58.8 31.2 Wisconsin 1,682 83 695 1,004 4.9 35.4 59.7 37.2 62.8										
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Wisconsin 1,682 83 695 1,004 4.9 35.4 59.7 37.2 62.8										
Wyoming 172 11 53 108 6.5 30.7 62.8 32.9 67.1		1,682			1,004	4.9	35.4	59.7	37.2	62.8
	Wyoming	172	11	. 23	108	6.5	30.7	62.8	32.9	67.1

Includes Federal grant programs to State and local achool systems, including the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Economic Opportunity Act, National Defense Education Act, Manpower Development and Training Act, Educational Professional Development Act, and to federally impacted areas, vocational education stc. Funds received from the School Lunch and Mills Program are included, but reporting on the money value of commodities received in incomplete. Funds from the States share of federal general revenue sharing are included. Rendudes funds from local and intermediates sources, girts, and tuition and fees from patrons. Pendudes trains from local end insermediates sources, girts, and tuition and fees from settle revenue "Financial data for local education agencies only, finally and the state of local education agencies only, finally and the state of local education agencies only.

Source. National Education Association, Estimetes of School Staristics, 1977-76, [Copyright 1978 by the National Education Association; all rights reserved.]

New Mexico and North Carolina, less than 20%. In general the southern states show the least reliance on local sources and thus the property tax. By contrast, in New Hampshire 86% of the school support is local; the state in this respect has not moved out of the 19th century. But South Dakota and Nebraska show local support percentages in excess of 70%, and Oregon, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, Wyoming and Wisconsin, 60%.

Changing State Tax Sources

The shift from local to state financing has of course greatly reduced the relative reliance on the property tax for the financing of education. Local governments themselves, in total, have been making increased use of nonproperty tax sources, but this trend has had little effect on the school districts, which, with minor exceptions, do not have access to these nonproperty tax sources.

Table 3 provides a summary of shifting relative state reliance on various tax sources. There have been no revolutionary changes in state tax legislation in recent decades, with new state taxes or rate changes. But rising incomes and inflation have produced two very significant trends:

1. The yields of the state income tax, particularly the personal income tax, have been rising rapidly, and in the early seventies the combined yield of the personal and corporate tax exceeded the yield of the sales taxes for the first time since the latter were introduced in the 1930s. The use of fixed dollar exemptions and, in the majority of the states, progressive (if not very progressive) rates cause the yield of the income tax to rise faster than the

TABLE 3

State Tax Revenues by Major Source
Selected Years 1927-1978

Tax	1978	1975	1970	1960	1950	1940	1927
Sales Tax	31	31	30	24	21	15	0
Individual Income Tax	26	24	19	12	9	6	4
Corporate Income Tax	9	8	8	7	7	5	6
Motor Fuel and Vehicle License	12	15	19	27	29	37	35
Tobacco	3	4	5	5	5	3	***
Liquor	2	3	3	4	5	6	-
Property	2	2	2	3	4	8	23
Death Duties	2	2	2	2	2	3	7
Other	13	11	12	16	18	17	25

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism, 1976-77 (Washington: 1977), p. 29; U.S. Bureau of the Census, State Government Tax Collections in 1978, p. 11.

Table 4. Percent Distribution of State Government Tax Revenue for Selected Taxes: 1978

			Sales and gr	osa receipts		License	texes			
State	Total		General	Selective	e seles		Motor	Individual	Corporation net income	Other
		Total	sales	Total	Motor fuels	Total	vebicle liceoses	THOUSE	net Inchie	
All States	100.0	51.5	31.1	20.3	8.4	6.8	3.9	25.7	9.5	6.6
Alabama	100.0	62.7	31.2	31.5	11.0	6.7	2.2	20.0	5.2	5.4
Alaska	100.0	12.2	(x)	12.2	4.1	5.6	2.2	25.9	6.0	50.4
Arizons	100.0	61.5 59.3	44.2 34.0	17.3	9.2	5.9	3.9	17.0	4.9	10.7
ArkansaeCalifornia	100.0	45.4	33.2	25.3 12.2	13.7 5.7	7.6	4.9 2.5	21.9 30.8	9.0 13.8	2.2 6.2
Colorado	100.0	52.7	35.0	17.7	8.7	6.5	3.6	31.0	7.1	2.6
Connecticut	100.0	72.3	41.6	30.7	10.4	6.8	4.2	4.9	12.9	3.2
Delaware	100.0	17.4	(x)	17.4	8.0	27.5	4.7	42.3	9.3	3.8
Plorida	100.0	74.6	43.7	30.9	10.8	8.7	5.6	., (x)	8.8	8.9
Georgia	100.0	58.4	36.4	22,0	11.8	3.7	2.1	27.6	9.3	1.0
Hewaii	100.0	63.6	48.7	14.9	4.5	1.8	1.0	30.1	3,8	0.7
Idaho	100.0	47.0	28.6	18.4	11.3	10.8	5.7	33.2	8.0	1.0
IllinoisIndiana	100.0	56.3 63.1	34.8 45.6	21.5 17.5	7.2 10.8	7.3 4.8	0.6 3.7	27.8	8.5	2.2
Ioas	100.0	43.6	26.8	18.8	9.7	10.8	8.7	35.0	7.8	2.8
Kansas	100.0	53.1	33.2	19.9	11.8	8.6	6.1	22.9	12.2	3.1
Kentucky	100.0	50.5	28.8	21.7	10.3	4.5	2.6	21.2	7.5	18.2
Louisiana	100.0	48.8	28.6	20.3	9.3	7,1	2.4	9.7	9.4	24.9
Maine	100.0	60.4	35.3	25,1	10.7	8.0	4.3	19.8	8.5	6.5
Waryland	100,0	48.2	26.1	22.1	8.1	4.5	3.3	36.8	6.3	5.2
Massachusetts	100.0	38.6	15.8	22.8	6.6	2.7	1.6	43.4	12.3	3.0
Michigan	100.0	43.6	28.0	14.8	8.3	4.7	3.5	31.8	16.7	3.2
Mississipp1	100.0	39.3 71.1	49.8	19.9	7.5 13.1	6.2	4.3 2.0	38.9 14.5	10.6 4.8	5.0 ***, 3.4
Missouri	100.0	58.9	39.3	19.6	11.8	9.0	5.8	24.6	8.3	1.3
Montana	100.0	26.3	(x)	26.3	13.8	8.4	4.0	36.5	8.6	20.1
Nebraska	100.0	58.4	35.3	23.1	14.4	7.8	5.3	25,5	6.9	1.3
Nevada	100.0	78.2	36.5	41.7	8.2	14.3	4,9	(x)	(x)	7,5
New Hampshire	100.0	52.3	(x)	52.3	18.8	15.2	8.8	3.8	21.8	8.9
New Jersey	100.0	49.1	29.2	19.8	8.7	11.1	6.3	22.6	11.6	5.6
New Mexico	100.0	80.4	43.2	17.2	9.1	6.5	4.5	6.0	4.9	22.1
New York	100.0	37.9	22.3	15.6	4.5	4.1	2.6	41.2	12.3	4.5
North Dakots	100.0	47.6 51.1	22.3	25.3 19.6	11.6	8.2 11.9	4.4 7.6	32,5 22,3	8.8	2.9 7.9
Ohio	100.0	58.2	31.4	26.8	9.7	8.1	4.7	18.8	11.2	3.8
Oklahoma	100.0	42.6	18.6	24.0	8.7	11,5	8.5	19.2	6.8	19.8
Oregon	100.0	14.8	(x)	14.8	8.3	12.5	7.6	59.2	10.8	2.6
Pencsylvania	100.0	49.6	28.0	21.8	8.2	11.6	4.6	21.2	12.6	5.0
Rhode Island	100.0	56.7 59.1	30.7 34.5	26.0 24.6	9.0 12.0	6.2 4.4	3.9 2.3	24.4	9.5	4.1 1.7
Fouth Polices	200.0	20.0		1				()	1.0	
South Dakota	100.0	86.0 73.8	51,4 49.0	34.6 24.8	16.8 11.8	8.7 9.6	6.7	(x)	1.3	2.9 5.1
Texas	100.0	68.6	37.7	30.8	8.9	11.4	5.2	(x)	(x)	20.1
Utah	100.0	57.2	42,8	14.4	9.7	4.6	2.7	31.2	4.9	2,2
Vermont	100.0	49.3	14.0	35.3	10.0	11.2	8,2	28.4	8.0	3.0
Virginia	100.0	46.7	20.9	25.8	11.8	5.4	3.6	37.5	7.1	3.3
Washington	100.0	76.5	56.8	19.7	9.5	5.7	3.0	(x)	(x)	17.8
West Virginia	100.0	71.6	49.6	22.0	8.6	5.9	4.1	18.7	2.1	1.7
Wisconsin	100.0	38.0 56.7	24.7 40.1	13.3	5.7 12.5	4.9 13.8	3.2 10.1	42.9 (X)	9.2 (X)	5.0 29.6
EXHIBIT: District of Columbia	100.0	37.0	18.6	18.4	2.5	3,1	2.0	26,0	8.2	25.8
	-00.0	37,0	10.0	10.4	2.3	3.1	2.0	20.0	0.2	۵.6

Note: Because of rounding, detail may not add to totals. Percentages were computed based on emounts in thousands of dollars.

Reproduced from U.S. Bureau of the Census, <u>State Government Tax Collections</u> in 1978, p. 10.

X Not applicable.

price level and total incomes, while the sales tax simply keeps pace with total consumer expenditures.

2. The incredible deterioration in real terms of the motor fuel taxes and motor vehicle license fees as a revenue source. These have declined from 37% in 1940 to 27% in 1960, 15% in 1975, and 12% in 1978. There is little wonder that the roads are full of potholes. The liquor and tobacco taxes have also fallen sharply; the relative yields of both have dropped in half, roughly, since 1960. The reason is simple: these levies, with minor exceptions, have specific rates. Legislators and voters rarely will raise them, so they continuously decline in yield relative to total revenues and to personal income taxes.

There is, of course, a wide range of patterns among the states, as shown in Table 4. There are groups at each extreme: the states relying primarily on sales and related taxes, and those relying primarily on income taxes, as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5

~ States	Relying Primarily on Sales and Sales Tax States	Income Taxes,	1978
	Sales and Related Taxes	Income Tax	s States
	as Percentage of State		Income Tax as Percentage
State	Tax Collections	State	of State Collections
*** - 1- 1	57	0	70
Washington	57	Oregon	70
South Dakota	51	Massachusetts	56
West Virginia	50	New York	54
Mississippi	50	Wisconsin	52
Hawaii	49	Delaware	52
Tennessee	49	Minnesota	49
Indiana	46	Michigan	48
Arizona	44	Montana	45
Florida	, 44	Virginia	45
New Mexico	43	Iowa	43
Utah	43	California	43
Connecticut	42	Maryland	42
Wyoming	40	Idaho	41

North Carolina

41

These are Bureau of the Census calculations and include in the sales tax data some related levies that other states do not have, such as gross receipts taxes. There are 13 states that receive 40% or more of their tax revenues form the sales tax, 14 that do so from the income tax. Several states in each group receive over half from the tax involved. Oregon's 70% reliance on the income tax is the highest dependency of any state on a particular levy. Several, but by no means all, in each group do not use the other levy, or at least with general coverage.

The result is widespread difference in the distribution of burden by income class, as shown in Table 6. For the states as a whole the distribution is somewhat regressive by income class, but not to a high degree. This pattern is also found with states making substantial use of both sales and income taxes, with property taxes at the local level. But the high income tax states, such as Oregon, show a progressive pattern throughout or over a wide range, whereas the non-income tax states, such as Washington, show a strikingly regressive burden.

While there is an ongoing dispute over the incidence of the property tax by income group because of varying assumptions about shifting of portions of the tax, the studies typically show some regressivity by income groups. This is particularly evident in the lowest income group—made up in part of retired persons owning their homes, and of others whose current incomes are far below their lifetime incomes. Table 7 shows the results of a typical study. Thus shift from financing of education from property to income taxes clearly produces a more progressive distribution of burden, so far as individual property owners are concerned. Even

Taide 6.

-- DISTRIBUTION OF MAJOR STATE-LOCAL TAX BURDENS RELATIVE TO FAMILY INCOME SIZE, BY STATE, 19741

(Tax Burdens as Percentages of Income)

•	-	Ad	ljusted Gross Incom	ne, Family of Four,	1974	
State	\$5,000	\$7,500	\$10,000	\$17,500	\$25,000	\$50,000
ALL STATES ²	11.3	10.0	8.9	8.5	8.1	7.8
ALABAMA	9.8	8.7	8.2	7.6	7.2	6.4
ARIZONA	9.9	8.7	7.7	7.3	7.1	6.9
ARKANSAS	8.5	7.8	7.0	6.8	6.8	7.4
CALIFORNIA	11.8	9.9	8.8	9.2	9.1	10.8
COLORADO	11.8	10.6	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.4
CONNECTICUT	18.4	15.1	12.3	11.9	9.8	7.6
DELAWARE	9.8	8.9	8.3	9.0	9.5	8.6
FLORIDA	7.5	6.0	4.9	4.2	3.5	2.6
GEORGIA	10.6	8.9	7.8	8.1	8.1	8.0
IDAHO	9.7	8.3	7.8	8.3	8.6	9.0
ILLINOIS	14.3	12.5	10.7	10.1	8.9	7.6
INDIANA	13.0	11.3	9.6	9.3	8.1	6.8
IOWA	14.5	13.4	12.1	11.3	10.6	9.5
KANSAS	14.3	12.2	10.5	10.3	9.3	8.5
KENTUCKY	9.5	9.6	9.0	8.6	8.4	7.7
LOUISIANA	6.1	5.0	4.6	4.1	3.7	3.6
MAINE	13.6	11.5	9.7	9.2	8.3	7.8
MARYLAND	13.9	13.6	12.8	12.4	11.9	11.7
MASSACHUSETTS	16.0	15.8	13.9	14.3	13.0	11.6
MICHIGAN	10.9	9.8	8.8	9.3	8.6	8.7
MINNESOTA	12.7	12.7	12.1	11.9	12.0	11.8
MISSISSIPPI	6.8	5.2	6.6	4.9	4.7	4.5
MISSOURI	12.0	10.5	9.3	8.8	8.5	7.9
MONTANA	11.2	10.0	9.2	9.1	8.8	8.8
NEBRASKA	12.2	10.5	9.0	8.8	7.8	7.4
NEVADA NEW HAMPSHIRE NEW JERSEY NEW MEXICO NEW YORK	8.4 12.3 20 .5 9.9 11.6	6.8 10.2 16.6 8.5 11.2	5.5 8.2 14.4 7.4 10.6	4.9 7.6 13.5 7.0	4.0 6.4 11.6 6.8	3.1 5.1 9.6 7.6 15.0
NORTH CAROLINA	10.3	9.6	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.8
NORTH DAKOTA	10.1	9.0	7.8	8.1	8.5	8.5
OHIO	10.5	9.0	7.9	7.7	7.3	7.1
OKLAHOMA	9.0	7.5	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.8
OREGON	6.6	8.3	8.4	9.0	9.4	10.6
PENNSYLVANIA	12.5	12.9	11.5	10.8	9.9	8.9
RHODE ISLAND	14.3	12.2	10.5	10.4	9.3	8.8
SOUTH CAROLINA	9.1	7.9	7.3	7.6	7.7	8.0
SOUTH DAKOTA	12.7	10.6	8.8	7.8	6.6	5.2
TENNESSEE	10.5	8.7	7.2	6.2	5.2	4.0
TEXAS	9.3	7.5	6.1	5.6	4.6	3.5
UTAH	10.3	9.2	8.2	8.4	8.1	7.4
VERMONT	11.9	11.5	10.4	10.3	10.0	- 11.0
VIRGINIA	10.0	8.6	7.9	8.2	7.8	7.5
WASHINGTON	10.4	6.3	6.8	5.8	4.7	3.5
WEST VIRGINIA	7.7	6.4	5.6	5.2	4.9	. 5.1
WISCONSIN	16.3	16.1	14.8	14.7	14.7	14.6
WYOMING	8.8	7.1	5.8	5.2	4.3	3.3

¹ All income is assumed to come from wages and solaries and earned by one spouse in the city of residence. Families are assumed to reside in the largest city in each state. Includes the following state and local taxes: state individual income, state general sales, local individual income, local sales, property tax or residence, cigarette excise, motor vehicle and gasoline excise. Excluding Aleska and Hewaii.

SOURCE: Family Tax Burdens compared among States and among Cities located within Kentucky and Neighboring States. A study prepared for the Kentucky Department of Revenue by Stophen E. Life, Assuciete Professor, Western Kentucky University, December 15, 1975.

Reproduced from Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Significant reatures of Fiscal Federalism, 1976-77 Edition, Washington, 1977,

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TABLE 7 - REAL ESTATE TAXES AS A PERCENTAGE OF FAMILY INCOME, OWNER-OCCUPIED SINGLE-FAMILY HOMES, BY INCOME CLASS AND BY REGION, 1970

	United States	Northeast	Northcentral	South Region	West	Exhibit: No. and distribution of homeowners		
Family income ¹	Total	Region	Region		Region	No. (000)	% dist. ²	
Less than \$2,000	16.6	30.8	18.0	8.2	22.9	1,718.8	5.5	
\$2,000- 2,999	- 9.7	15.7	9.8	5.2	12.5	1,288.7	9.7	
3,000- 3,999	7.7 ·	13.1	7.7	4.3	8.7	1,397.8	14.1	
4,000- 4,999	6.4	9.8	6.7	3.4	8.0	1,342.8	18.5	
5,000- 5,999	5 .5	9.3	5.7	2.9	6.5	1,365.1	22.8	
6,000- 6,999	4.7	7.1	4.9	2.5	5.9	1,530.1	27.8	
7,000- 9,999	4.2	6.2	4.2	2.2	5.0	5,377.4	45.0	
10,000-14,999	3.7	5.3	3.6	2.0	4.0	8,910.3	73.6	
15,000-24,999	3.3	4.6	3.1	2.0	3.4	6,365.6	94.0	
25,000 or more	2.9	3.9	2.7	1.7	2.9	1,876.9	100.0	
All incomes			٠.			31,144.7		
Arithmetic mean	4.9	6.9	5.1	2.9	5.4			
Median	3.4	5.0	3.5	2.0	3.9			

¹Census definition of income (income from all sources). Income reported received in 1970. ²Cumulated from lowest income class.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Residential Finance Survey, 1970 (conducted in 1971), special tabulations prepared for the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. Real estate tax data were compiled for properties acquired prior to 1970 and represent taxes paid during 1970. Medians were computed by ACIR staff.

Reproduced from Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism, 1976-77 Edition, Washington, 1977, p.143. shift to a sales tax lessens regressivity, if it is assumed that the proportion of the property tax on business property is shifted to the consumer. If it is assumed that the property tax is primarily a tax on capital, however, then the distribution of burden is progressive and shift to a sales tax increases regressivity. This is not the popularly held view, however.

The studies thus far available of distribution of property tax burden were made before most of the circuit breaker and other provisions to lessen burden on the elderly poor were introduced. The present property taxes, as explained below, are undoubtedly less regressive than the tax was a decade ago.

Changes in Major Taxes

Recent decades have not seen drastic changes in the structure of the three major tax sources, but some have occurred.

Property Taxes - The major change in property taxes has been the introduction of "circuit breaker" features, designed to lessen the impact of the tax on those persons most severely burdened - the elderly owning their own homes but having little current income. The primary feature is that a credit is given to low income taxpayers, either as a deduction from taxable income or as a cash refund. With one group of states, if the property tax exceeds a certain percentage of the taxpayer's income, the taxpayer receives a credit for all or part

Note Henry Aaron, Who Pays the Property Tax? - A New View, (Washington: Brookings, 1975).

of the excess; in the other all taxpayers in a specified lower income group receive a percentage reduction in property taxes, the percentage falling with increases in income. Five states provide the credit regardless of age; in the others only the elderly receive the credit. Several states allow credit for tenants, under the assumption that a certain percentage of rent paid - usually 20 - reflects the landlords' property tax shifted to the tenant. By 1977, 29 states had some form of property tax relief for the low income elderly.

One other change has been the move to check rising property taxes on farm lands by requiring assessment on the basis of farm use rather than value for other purposes, and to shift to a farm productivity basis instead of sales value, a measure designed in part to meet the problem created by increases in farm land values out of proportion to increasing yields from the properties.

Income Taxes - State income taxes, personal and corporate combined, have become the number one source of state tax revenue, for the states, as a whole. Trends in reliance on this tax by state are shown in Table 8. The last major shift to this tax occured in the period between 1967 and 1971, when ten states, including the major industrial states of Michigan, Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania imposed the tax. Thereafter only one individual income tax was added (New Jersey in 1976). There are only five states without individual income taxes, although three have taxes with limited scope. Forty five had

A survey of property tax changes is provided by Ronald Welch, "Property Tax Developments: Modernization, Classification, Site Value Taxation," National Tax Journal, Vol. 29 (Sept. 1976), pp. 323-27.

				Constitution of the same of the same of the same of				
State	1977	1974	1971	1968	1963	1953	Percentag Increase or 1971-1977	Decrease (-)
All States	25,2	23.0	19.7	17.1	13.4	9.2	5.5	16.0
Alabama Alaska Arizona Arkansas California	18.7 27.2 16.4 20.4 28.8	16.7 39.5 18.6 19.3 22.6	13.0 40.9 14.1 11.6 22.3	11.7 37.4 10.4 10.9	9.2 33.2 6.7 7.4 12.6	1/ 11.3 n.a. 7.6 3.7 8.3	5.7 -13.7 2.3 8.8 6.5	7.4 n.a. 8.8 16.7 20.5
Colorado Connecticut Delaware Florida	31.5 4.1 43.0	31.5 1.7 35.1	27.9 1.3 35.6 No individual			12.2 2/ 12.0	3.6 2.8 7.2	19.3 4/1 31.0
Georgia	26.0	22.4	18.5	15.7	11.2	6.4	7.5	19.6
Hawaii Ideho Illinois Indiana Iovo	29.6 30.6 26.6 22.2 34.6	30.7 28.1 25.6 19.4 32.2	31.4 30.1 24.6 20.7 18.0	29.0 25.3 2/ 19.7 16.8	23.7 28.4 <u>2/</u> 2/ 15.7	n.a. 17.3 2/ 2/ 10.8	-1.8 0.5 2.0 1.5 16.6	n.a. 13.3 26.6 22.2 23.8
Kansas Kentucky Louisism a Maine Maryland	21.6 21.7 7.8 16.0 37.9	20.9 19.2 7.6 11.6 36.3	17.7 17.5 8.3 10.4 35.8	17.6 17.6 5.3 2/ 36.1	11.8 14.0 3.6 2/ 25.9	8.6 14.7 6.51/ 2/ 14.9	3.9 4.2 -0. 5.6 2.1	13:0 7.0 1.3 16,0 23.0
Kassachuetss Michigan Birnesota Picsissippi Missourf	40.6 29.8 38.5 13.6 24.4	44.0 25.2 38.0 9.8 22.5	37.9 18.7 23.7 8.9 19.8	29.9 14.0 33.4 3.3 16.4	32.1 2/ 32.7 3.6 15.9	23.2 2/ 20.7 4.9 12.51/	2,7 11.1 4.8 4.7 4.6	17.4 29.6 17.8 8.7
Muntana Muhraska L Movada	35.8 28.0	35.9 19.5	31.2 18.3 No Individual	28.2 7.0	18.9 <u>2</u> /	13.1	4.6 9.7	22.7 % · 28.0
hew Kampshire Kew Jorsey	3.5	4.8 1.6	4.4 1.3	3.6	3.7 1.6	4.7 2/	-0.9 21.6	-1.2 22.9
New Maxico New York Worth Carolina Morth Dakota Dhio	4.5 42.1 32.8 18.6 17.2	13.2 40.3 27.9 20.5 15.0	11.3 40.5 23.3 11.9 2/	7.0 40.2 24.0 13.0 27	6.7 40.6 17.7 9.0 <u>2</u> /	3.1 39.1 13.0 8.0 2/	-6.8 1.6 9.5 6.7 17.2	1.4 12.0 19.8 10.6 17.2
Oblahoma Gregor Permaylvania Rhado Island South Carolina	19.0 57.7 21.1 23.6 24.5	13.6 50.1 24.2 22.2 21.4	11.8 50.9 4.4 13.8 18.1	9.7 44.4 2/ 2/ 17.2	5.2 44.3 2/ 2/ 12.4	4.7 33.6 2/ 7/9	7.2 6.8 16.7 9.8 6.4	14.3 24.1 21.1 23.6 16.6
South Dakota Tennossee	1.5	1.5	1.7	al Income Ta	1.9	1.9	-0.2	-0.4
Texas Utah Verwont	29.8 30.6	24.8 29.4	No Individu 23.0 30.3	al Income Ta 23.6 34.1	15.4 26.2	10.6 21.9	6.8 0.3	19.2 8.7
Virginia	34.8	31.1	30.1	30.4	31.4	17.9	4.7	16.9
dashington Kest Virginia Wisconsin Wymoning	18.2 41.9	16.4 39.5	13.5 35.6	al Income Ta 8.8 41.2 al Income Ta	7.6 36.5	2/ 25.3	4.7 6.3	18.2 16.6
Exhibit: Dist. of Col.	27.2	26.3		18.4	14.2	12.04/	1.7	15.2

n.a.--Not applicable, 1953 prior to statehood.

Nim ludes combined corporation and individual taxes for Alabama, Louisiana, and Missouri.

Individual income tax not in effect for fiscal years indicated.

The New dersey tax was initially enacted in 1961 as the "Emerging Transportation Tax" (Commuters Income Tax), the broad-based pursonal income tax was enacted in 1978. A/Includes combined corporation and individual taxes.

Source: ACIR staff computations based on U.S. Buredo of the Census, Governments Division, various publications.

impose corporate income taxes by 1975; of the larger states only Texas and Washington have not done so. The one exception to the general trend was Michigan's repeal of its corporation income tax in 1975 in favor of a value added type of levy called the single business tax, mainly to stabilize state revenue. 1

The rates of many state income taxes have remained unchanged for decades. There has been little or no upward trend. Some states readjust their rates from year to year for budget balancing purposes, and Nebraska does so under an automatic formula. In 1978 5 states actually reduced their income tax rates. There has been a definite, but difficult to measure or summarize, trend toward liberalizing exemptions and granting additional deductions, thus in effect reducing the overall burden. Trends in effective burden are shown in Table 9. There is now the beginning of a trend to index the brackets, Colorado and Arizona making the change in 1978, the former for the one year only. Tables 8 and 9 show trends in state individual income tax revenues and effective rates.

Sales Taxes² - Changes in sales taxes have not been dramatic; no new state has added the sales tax since 1969. The taxes, as of May 1, 1979, are summarized in Table 10.

Rates - As shown in Table 11, there has been a steady but very slow upward trend in sales tax rates. In 1962, the great majority

Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, The Michigan Single Business Tax, (Washington, 1978).

This is based on the article by the author, "Changes in State, Local, and Provincial Sales Taxes in the Last Decade," <u>Canadian Tax Journal</u>, Vol. 27 (Jan.-Feb., 1979), pp. 36-45.

Table 9--EFFECTIVE RATES OF STATE PERSONAL INCOME TAXES FOR SELECTED ADJUSTED GROSS INCOME LEVELS, MARRIED COUPLE WITH TWO DEPENDENTS, BY STATE, 1977-

			Ac	djusted Gross	Income Clas	S		
State	\$5,000	\$7,500	\$10,000	\$15,000	\$17,500	\$20,000	\$25,000	\$50,000
Alabama* Alaska Arizona* Arkansas California <u>2</u> /	0.3%	1.1% 0.4 1.2 1.1 -0.5	1.7% 1.0 1.6 1.6 -0.4	1.5% 1.6 1.3 1.7	1.9% 1.9 1.7 2.1 1.6	2.0% 2.0 1.9 2.3 1.8	2.3% 2.5 2.5 2.9 2.5	2.6% 4.4 3.4 4.5 5.6
Colorado*2/ Delaware* District of Columbia Georgia Hawai12/	-0.5 0.8 2/ -0.1 -3.4	0.8 1.8 1.7 0.3	1.4 2.5 2.7 0.8 1.3	1.1 2.7 2.8 1.2 2.6	1.7 3.5 3.4 1.7 3.2	2.0 3.9 3.7 2.0 3.6	2.6 4.7 4.6 2.7 4.3	3.6 7.1 7.0 4.0 6.0
Idaho2/ Illinois Indiana lowa* Kansas*	-1.2 0.5 1.0 1.1	1.2 1.3 2.2 0.7	1.0 1.5 1.5 2.8 1.0	1.8 1.8 1.7 2.4 1.2	2.5 1.9 1.7 2.8 1.5	2.8 2.0 1.8 2.7 1.6	3.6 2.1 1.8 3.4 2.0	5.1 2.3 1.9 4.5 3.1
Kentucky* Louisiana* Maine Maryland Massachusetts <u>2</u> /	0.5 0.6 -0.5	0.2	2.5 0.6 0.4 2.5 2.7	2.0 0.9 0.7 2.3 3.3	2.4 1.0 1.0 2.6 3.6	2.6 0.9 1.3 2.7 3.8	2.9 1.0 2.1 3.1 4.0	3.2 1.5 4.7 3.8 4.6
Michigan3/ Minnesota*4/ Mississippi Missouri* Montana*	-1.6 -6.9 1.0	** -3.2 0.2 2.0	1.5 1.4 0.4 0.7 2.8	0.8 4.8 0.7 1.0 2.2	1.0 5.6 1.1 1.4 2.7	1.3 5.9 1.3 1.6 3.0	1.4 6.7 1.8 2.1 3.6	2.6 7.7 2.7 2.8 4.9
Nebraska <u>2</u> / New Jersey New Mexico <u>2</u> / New York North Carolina	-1.6 -2.8 0.8	-0.6 0.1 -1.7 1.3 1.8	0.2 0.6 -0.9 2.1 2.6	1.3 1.5 0.1 2.4 2.5	1.6 1.5 0.5 3.0 3.1	1.6 1.6 0.8 3.3 3.3	2.1 1.7 1.4 4.4 3.9	3.7 2.1 3.6 8.5 5.1
North Dakota* Ohio Oklahoma* Oregon* Pennsylvania	0.2 0.1 0.7	0.4 0.3 0.3 2.3 2.0	0.8 0.5 0.5 3.0 2.0	1.1 0.8 0.6 2.9 2.0	1.7 1.0 0.9 3.3 2.0	2.2 1.2 1.1 3.6 2.0	3.1 1.5 1.8 4.3 2.0	4.3 2.3 3.4 6.2 2.0
Rhode Island South Carolina* Utah* Vermont Virginia	0.5 0.4 -0.6 0.5	1.2 1.4 0.2	0.8 1:6 2.0 1.1 1.8	1.6 1.7 2.1 2.3 2.1	1.7 2.2 2.6 2.6 2.2	1.7 2.6 2.9 2.5 2.6	2.1 3.3 3.4 3.1 3.1	3.6 4.8 4.0 5.3 4.1
West Virginia Wisconsin <u>2</u> /	0.9 -4.8	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.9 5.6 ·	3.0 7.4
Median Rate	~~	0.75	1.45	1.70	1.90	2.00	2.65	4.00
Federal Tax	-6.0	-0.1	4.5	9.2	10.2	10.2	12.5	21.1

Note: "Effective rates" are computed as the percentage that tax liability is of adjusted gross income (i.e., income after business deductions but before personal exemptions and other allowable deductions). In computing income taxes, it was assumed that all income was from wages and salaries and earned by one spouse. In computing the state income taxes for the \$5,000, \$7,500, and \$10,000 income classes, the optional standard deductions, low income allowances, and optional tax tables were used. For the other income classes (based on deductions claimed on federal income tax returns) the following estimated itemized deductions were assumed: \$15,000--\$3,830; \$17,500--\$3,915; \$20,000--\$4,650; \$25,000--\$5,115; and \$50,000--\$7,875. For federal tax computations, the zero bracket amount (\$3,200) and the earned income credit applied for the \$5,000 and \$7,500 classes; the zero bracket amount for the \$10,000 and \$15,000 classes; and the average of the zero bracket amount and estimated itemized deductions for the \$17,500 class. For the remaining classes, the following estimated itemized deductions were assumed: \$20,000--\$5,200; \$25,000--\$5,850; \$50,000--\$10,100 (state itemized deductions with the addition of est. state income taxes and less certain deductions not allowed under federal law). Excludes the following states with limited personal income taxes: Connecticut (capital gains and dividends); New Hampshire and Tennessee _ (interest and dividends).

^{1/}Based upon tax liability on income earned during calendar year 1977.
2/Regative rates result from credits allowed for consumer type taxes paid and/or property tax or renter credits. If the

credit exceeds the tax liability the taxpayer can apply for a refund.

3/Includes credits for estimated city (Detroit) income and property tax payments.

4/Includes renter credits for the first three income classes. Homeowners under 65 receive property tax refunds as a direct cash payment and cannot use their refund as a credit on their income tax returns.

Source: ACIR staff computations based on the Commerce Clearing House, State Tax Reporter; and Department of the Treasury, Internal Revenue Service, Your Foderal Income Tax, 1978 Edition.

Reproduced from Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations,

Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism, 1978-79 (Washington:1979),

Appedix, Table 50.

State Sales Taxes, May 1, 1979

State	State Sales Tax Rate (percent)	Maximum Local Sales Tax Rate (percent)	Combined State and Maximum Local Rate	Sales Tax Revenue as Percent of Total State Tax Revenue, 1978	Food Exemption
Alabama Arizona Arkansas California Colorado	4 4 3 4.75 3	3 2 1 1.75	7 6 4 6.5 7	32 43 34 33 35	х
Connecticut Florida Georgia Hawaii Idaho	7 4 3 4 3	1	7 4 4 4 3	42 44 36 28 29	x x
Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas Kentucky	4 4 3 3 5	.5	5 4 3 3.5 5	35 35 27 33 35	x
Louisiana Maine Maryland Massachusetts Michigan	3 5 5 5 4	3 1	6 5 5 5 4	29 35 31 16 29	x x x x
Minnesota Mississippi Missouri Nebraska Nevada	4 5 3.125 3 3	1.5	5 5 4,625 4 3,5	23 50 39 35 37	х
New Jersey New Mexico New York North Carolina North Dakota	5 3.75 4 3 3	.75 4 1	5 4.5 8 4 3	29 45 22 22 32	x x
Ohio Oklahoma Pennsylvania Rhode Island South Carolina	4 2 6 6 4	1.5	5.5 4 6 6 4	31. 22 28 31. 35	x x x
South Dakota Iennesse Texas Utah Vermont	4 ² 4.5 4 3	2 2.25 1 1	6 6.75 5 5 3	57 49 46 43 24	x x
Virginia Washington ¹ West Virginia ¹ Wisconsin Wyoming	3 4,6 3 4 3	1 .8	5.4 3 4 4	24 44 21 25 40	x x
Alaska District of Columbia	5	5	5	19	×

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{Excluding}$ gross receipts or gross income tax.

Source of revenue data: U.S. Bureau of the Census, <u>State Tax Collections</u> in 1978. Revenue from separate taxes imposed in lieu of sales tax on sales of motor vehicles and hotels and meals has been added.

²Becomes 5% July 1, 1980.

of the states used 3%; in 1971, 3% was still the most popular (20), but there were 22 above and only 3 below. By 1978, there were almost as many 4s as 3s, with only one below 3% and 27 above. The maximum rate was 4% in 1962, 6% in 1971, 7% in 1978. But there are still only 3 in excess of 5%. In the 1971-78 period, 14 of the rates were increased (one by only 1 percent), but only 2 by as much as 2 percentage points. Two were decreased, but one by only .25% to make way for a similar increase in the local sales tax rate, the other (North Dakota) by 1. Thus the rate changes have been slow and not drastic. The Nebraska rate is adjusted automatically from year to year on the basis of revenue needs, but in a very narrow range.

2. Coverage—In the last decade, there has been little basic trend toward change in structure; such trend as there has been is toward slight broadening of exemptions, rather than broader coverage of the tax, as was occurring to some degree in the 1960s.

TABLE 11
State Sales Tax Rates, Selected Years

	Number							
Rate,%	1938	1962	1971	1978				
2	16	11	3	1				
3	6	20	20	17				
4	0	5	15	16				
5	0	0	6	8				
6	0	0	1	2				
7	. 0	0	0	1				

Fractional rates are grouped on the major fraction rule.

a. Food. In most sales tax states, proposals for exemption of food come up in every legislative session or before the voters, and since 1971 exemption has been granted in six additional states:

Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Indiana, North Dakota (which had exempted a few food items previously) and Washington. This exemption causes a substantial revenue loss (20 to 25%), adds to complications in operation and enforcement, and frees, unnecessarily, substantial expenditures of the middle and upper income groups, but it nevertheless has great political appeal. Thus as of May 1, 1979, 21 of the sales tax states exempt food (but not restaurant meals).

A decade ago, there was considerable spread of a superior alternative to food exemption: a credit against income tax (with cash rebate if the credit exceeded income tax liability) representing tax paid on minimum necessary purchases. But the spread has been relatively slow; while the procedure has great advantages over food exemption in terms of equity, protection of revenue, and operation of the tax, it has less political appeal. Three states abandoned the plan: Iowa, Michigan and Indiana, the last two shifting to food exemption instead. Hawaii, Colorado, Nebraska, Mew Mexico and Utah use the system in lieu of food exemption. Two states, Massachusetts and Vermont, provide both the credit and food exemption, thus adding to complications unnecessarily. Idaho provides a credit but no cash refund for low income groups; Wyoming uses the system only for the elderly.

b. <u>Drugs and Medicines</u>. This exemption, which has particular justification because of uneven incidence of medical expenditures, is now provided for prescription drugs in all except 6 states, compared to all except 19 in 1971, and in several for all drugs.

- c. Others. One additional state, Rhode Island (making a total of five) has made the mistake of exempting clothing, making the tax more regressive. Several states, most recently Maine and Minnesota, have exempted gas and electricity for home use. But adding exemptions has not been a common pattern.
- d. <u>Services</u>. A decade age, there was a move in a number of states to broaden the base by adding specified services. But the trend slackened. There were serious objections to general inclusion of services, still found only in Hawaii and New Mexico, and inclusion of a limited number adds little to revenue and does not make the tax more progressive.²
- e. Industrial Machinery and Equipment. The sales taxes were presumably designed to reach final consumption expenditures, but as a result of the definition of retail sales used, certain purchases by business firms were brought within the scope of the taxes. Because many commodities may be used for either production or consumption use, exclusion of all nonconsumption purchases is almost impossible under the retail sales tax. But this is not true of industrial machinery and equipment. But once it was brought within the scope of the tax, for political and revenue reasons exclusion is difficult.

J.M. Schaefer, "Clothing Exemptions and Sales Tax Regressivity,"
American Economic Review, Vol. 59 (Sept. 1969), pp. 596-99.

²David Davies, "The Significance of Taxation of Services for the Pattern of Distribution of Tax Burden by Income Class," <u>Proceedings of the National Tax Association for 1969</u>, pp. 138-46. A similar conclusion was reached by E.O. Nelson, "Progressivity of the Ontario Retail Sales Tax," <u>Canadian Tax Journal</u>, vol. 18 (September-October 1971), pp. 411-15, using Canadian data.

Typically the states that introduced the tax in early years tax these industrial items, while many of those that introduced the tax in a later period do not. There is also an important regional concentration; in general the industrial states, from Wisconsin and Indiana east to the seaboard, exclude the industrial items.

There has been a slight tendency to add the exemption and no tendency to eliminate it (except temporarily in New Jersey). New Jersey restored the exemption in 1977; Rhode Island and Connecticut phased in the exemption over a period of several years, fully effective in 1978. The Illinois legislature enacted a similar provision in 1978. Illinois has been the last major industrial state east of the Mississippi to tax machinery and equipment. The primary motive in these states making the change has been to aid industrial development in the state.

The general trend, therefore, has been some lessening of regressivity by food exemption or credit against income tax (and both in
two states) and by the almost complete exemption of drugs and medicines.
There is substantial evidence that a sales tax with food taxable is
regressive, with food exempt, more or less proportional.

PART II. THE REVOLT

One of the first bits of evidence of increasing taxpayer dissatisfaction was provided by voter action on bond issues, the aspect of governmental finance most subject to popular vote. Between 1950 and 1959, 79% of all state and local bond issues (by amount) were approved; from 1960 through 1967, 73 percent, from 1968 through 1975, only 50%, and in 1975, the all time low, 29 percent.

Cities and school districts in Oregon, in which voters must approve budgets when increases exceed specified amounts, were having increasing difficulty in obtaining voter approval, and some schools closed as a result for weeks at a time. But until 1978, most proposals to restrict state or state-local spending were defeated. In June of 1978, however, California voters approved Proposition 13, drastically reducing property taxes and making state and local tax increases much more difficult. Specifically, in brief, the provisions were as follows:

- 1. Property tax rates are limited to 1% of "full cash value."
- 2. "Full cash value" is the 1976-77 assessed value figure; the assessments cannot be increased until property is sold or new property constructed, except to the extent of increase in the consumer price index to a maximum of 2% a year.
- 3. Any future increases in state taxes require a two thirds vote of all members of each house of the legislature.
- 4. Local governments, by a two thirds vote of the electors, may impose special taxes, but not on real property.

The action of the California voters led to the placing of tax and expenditure limitation measures on the November ballot in a number of states (in many states no such measures are possible and in others, such as Illinois, the vote is not binding). Arizona, Hawaii, Michigan, and Texas voters approved measures limiting the growth in

Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism, 1976-77 (Washington, 1977), p. 74.

state expenditures to the rate of growth in income or related measures (Tennessee had previously done so), but Nebraska voters defeated a similar proposal. Idaho and Nevada voters approved measures to roll back the property tax rates drastically (there is doubt about the constitutionality of the former, and in Nevada the voters must approve a second time). But Oregon voters turned down a similar measure, as did Michigan voters (who approved a milder proposal). South Dakota voters approved a 2/3 vote requirement for tax increases. As a consequence of this voter action, governors in a number of states proposed substantial cuts in expenditures in the 1979-80 budgets.

Causes of the Revolt

How can this relatively sudden change in voter attitudes be explained?

Tax Increases? One obviously possible explanation was that taxes

had been rising sharply.

Popular literature is fond of referring to soaring and skyrocketing state and local tax burdens. What is the evidence? Table 12, reproduced from Tax Foundation sources, shows that state and local expenditure (from own sources) as a percentage of GNP is virtually the same as it was a decade ago and less than in the mid seventies. Expressed as a percentage of personal income, the figures show some rise (Table 13), as personal income has risen less rapidly than GNP, but the increase over a decade relative to incomes has been relatively small, as has been the increase in Federal taxes and expenditures.

Data of property taxes as a percentage of GNP and of personal income show an increase up to 1971-72 and a decline since, as shown in Tables 14 and 15. The most hated of the major state and local taxes has not been increasing at all relative to personal incomes.

Table

Government Expenditures and Gross National Product

Calendar Years 1960-1978

(Dollar Amounts in Billions)

		Government expenditures ^a							
			Amount	ь		s a percent is national			
Year	Gross national product	Totat	Federal	State and local	Total	Federal	State and local		
1960 1961 1962 1963 1964 1965 1966 1967 1968	\$506.0 523.3 563.8 594.7 635.7 688.1 753.0 796.3 868.5 935.5	\$136.4 149.1 160.5 167.8 176.3 187.8 213.6 242.4 268.9 285.6	\$ 93.1 101.9 110.4 114.2 118 2 123.8 143.6 163.7 189.6 188.4	\$ 43.3 47.2 50.1 53.6 58.1 64.0 70.0 78.7 88.3 97.2	27.0 28.5 28.5 28.2 27.7 27.3 28.4 30.4 31.0 30.5	18.4 19.5 19.6 19.2 18.6 18.0 19.1 20.6 20.8 20.1	8.6 9.0 8.9 9.0 9.1 9.3 9.3 9.9 10.2		
1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975 1976 1977 1978 IC 1978 IC	982.4 1,063.4 1,171.1 1,306.6 1,412.9 1,528.8 1,700.1 1,887.2 1,992.0 2,087.5 2,141.1	311.9 340.5 370.9 404.9 458.2 532.8 570.4, 621.8 659.1 670.1 693.9	204.2 220.6 244.7 265.0 299.3 356.8 385.2 422.6 448.8 448.3 466.1	107.7 119.9 126.2 139.9 156.0 185.2 199.2 210.3 221.8 227.8	31.7 32.0 31.7 31.0 32.4 34.8 33.6 33.0 33.1 32.1 32.4	20.8 20.7 20.9 20.3 21.2 23.3 22.7 22.4 22.5 21.5 21.8	11.0 11.3 10.8 10.7 11.2 11.5 10.9 10.6 10.6		

^{*}Expenditures on income and product accounts. They are on an accrual basis, include trust account transactions with the public, and exclude capital transactions that do not represent current produc-

Reproduced from Tax Foundation, Monthly Tax Features, Vol. 23, January 1979p.2

tion.

Federal data include expenditures for grants-in-aid to state and local governments. These amounts have been excluded from state and local expenditures to avoid duplication.

Seasonally adjusted at annual rates.

Seasonally adjusted at annual rates.

Source: Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, and Tax Foundation computations.

Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism, 1978-79 (Washington:1979), Table 24. Reproduced from Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations,

STATE AND LOCAL TAX REVENUE IN RELATION TO STATE PERSONAL INCOME, BY STATE AND REGION, SELECTED YEARS, 1953-1977 1. Tax Revenue as a Percent of Personal Income

State & Region	1977	1975	1965	1953	Annual Average Percent Increase or Decrease (-) 1975-77 1965-75 1953-6		
United States	12.80	12.29	10.45	7.58	2.1	1.6	2.7
New England	13.59	12.79	9.97	7.90	3.1	2.5	2.0
Connecticut Maine Massachusetts	12.00 12.44 15.14	10.82 12.59 14.20	9.08 10.98 10.21	6.06 8.95 8.77	5.3 ~0.6 3.3	1.8 1.4 3.4	3.4 1.7 1.3
New Hampshire Rhode Island	10.62	10.75	9.51	8.28 7.02	-0.6 2.9	1.2	1.2
Vermont 1/	15.18	15.46	12.72	9.62	-0.9	2.0	2.4
Mideast Delaware Maryland	14.66 11.80 12.95	13.94 11.66 12.26	10.54 8.98 9.34	7.46 4.21 6.33	2.5 0.6 2.8	2.8 2.6 2.8	2.9 6.5 3.3
New Jersey New York	12.61	11.59	9.07	6.59 8.79	4.3	2.5 3.4	2.7 2.5
Pennsylvania	11.88	11.68	9.47	6.17	0.9	2.1	3.6
Great Lakes Illinois	11.72	11.35 11.73	9.73 8.89	6.78 6.37	1.6 0.0	1.6 2.8	3.1 2.8
Indiana Michigan	10.54	11.15	10.24	7.08 7.31	-2.8 5.8	0.9	3.1 3.2
Ohio Wisconsin	10.00	9.69 13.83	8.64 12.55	5.87 8.91	1.6 1.9	2.0 1.0	3.3 2.9
Plains Iowa	12.14	11.73 12.14	10.83	8.25 9.22	1.7	0.8 0.4	2.3
Kansas Minnesota	11.32 14.70	10.86 13.94	11.70 12.72	8.71 9.38	2.1 2.7	-0.7 0.9	2.5 2.6
Missouri Nebraska	10.26 12.78	10.35	8.74 9.34	6.14 7.69	-0.4 8.0	1.7	3.0 1.6
North Dakota South Dakota	11.84 12.35	10.95 11.60	11.77 12.60	11.27	4.0 3.2	-0.7 -0.8	0.4 1.3
Southeast Alabama	10.91	10.70 9.94	10.04 9.74	7.86 7.00	1.0 0.3	0.6 0.2	2.1 2.8
Arkansas Florida	10.18	9.90 9.94	9.77 10.53	7.92 9.20	1.4	0.1 -0.6	1.8
Georgia Kentucky	11.15 11.28	10.79	9.96 9.62	7.67 6.47	1.7 -0.2	0.8 1.6	2.2 3.4
Louisiana Mississippi	12.01	12.99	12.05 11.85	10.43 9.37	-3.8 -0.1	0.8	1.2
North Carolina South Carolina	10.98	10.58	9.97 9.67	8.25 8.61	1.9	0.6	1.6
Tennessee Virginia	10.73	10.04	9.71 8.55	7.32 6.09	3.4 0.9	0.3 2.2	2.4
West Virginia	11.64	12.27	9.85	6.81	-2.6	2.2	3.1
Southwest Arizona	11.10 14.42	11.06 13.26	10.16 12.15	7.34 8.50	0.2 4.3	0.9 0.9	2.7 3.0
New Mexico Oklahoma	11.96 10.65	13.54 10.53	12.16	8.66 9.07	-6.0 0.6	1.1 0.1	2.9 1.2
Texas Rocky Mountain	10.56	10.56 11.78	9.60	6.68 8.60	0.0 5.0	1.0 0.1	3.1 2.5
Colorado Idaho	12.97	11.61	11.40	8.93 9.00	F 7	0.2	2.1
Montana Utah	13.60 12.59	12.57	11.78	7.62 8.44	4.0	0.7	3.7 2.8
. Wyoming 2/	15.48	13.43	11.28	8.73	7.4	1.8	2.2
Far West California	14.84 15.49	14.07 14.59	11.79 11.98	8.34 8.41	2.7 3.0	1.8 2.0	2.9 3.0
Nevada Oregon	12.93 12:93	13.23	10.69	7.93 8.24	-1.1 3.2	1.0	2.5
Washington Alaska	12.23	12.06	11.18	8.07 5.03 <u>3</u> / 8.23 <u>3</u> /	0.7 37.3	0.8 4.4 2.1	2.8 4.1 3. 0
Hawaii	14.07	14.44	11.72	8.232/	-1.3	2.1	3.0

^{*}Less than 0.05 percent.
1/Excluding the District of Columbia.
7/Excluding Alaska and Hawaii

TABLE 14

Property Taxes as a Percentage of GNP, Selected Years 1902-1977

Year	Property Tax Collections	Property Taxes as Percent of GNP
1976-77	\$62,535	3.5%
1971-72	41,500	4.0
1969-70	34,083	3.7
1964-65	22,583	3.6
1962	19,054	3.4
1960	16,405	3.3
1954	9,967	2.7
1950	7,349	2.6
1946	4,986	2.4
1944	4,604	2.2
1942	4,537	2.9
1940	4,430	4.4
1936	4,093	5.0
1932	4,487	7.7
1927	4,730	4.9
1922	3,321	4.5
1913	1,332	3.3
1902	706	2.9

Sources: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental
Relations, Financing Schools and Property Tax
Relief - a State Responsibility, (Washington:
1973), p. 16 and Bureau of the Census Publications.

Table 15.

- STATE-LOCAL PROPERTY TAXES PER \$1,000 OF STATE PERSONAL INCOME BY STATE, AND REGION, SELECTED YEARS, 1942-1977

, i *

21

	1	977		1972		1967		1957		1942
		As % of		As % of	•	As % of		As % of		As % of
		U.S.		U.S.		U.S.		U.S.		U.S.
State and Region	Amount	Average	Amount	Avarage	Amount	Average	-Amount	Average		Average
United States	\$46	100	\$50	100	945	100	\$371	100	8371	100
Naw England	(69)	(128) 98	(66) 66	(132) 132	(52) 51	(116) 113	(45) 44	(122) 119	(43) 45	(116) 122
Maine New Hampshire	45 66	143	73	146	59	131	51	138	50	135
Vermont	62.	135	73	148	50	111	46	124	43	116
Massachusetts	74	161	73	146	59	131	62	141	51	138
Rhode Island	52	113	60 64	100 128	45 48	100	· 39	105 97	35 32	85 86
Connecticut Mideast	58 (41)	122 (89)	(42)	(84)	(38)	(84)	(30)	(81)	(34)	(92)
New York	63	137	58	116	62	116	43	116	53	143
New Jersey	63	137	67	134	64	120	45	122	52	141
Pennsylvania	31	67	34	68	32	71	25 12	68 32	36 12	97 32
Delaware	19 39	41 85	21 40	42 80	19 42	93	31	84	27	73
Maryland District of Columbia	29	63	32	64	29	54	25	68	22	59
Great Lakes	(44)	(96)	(56)	(112)	(45)	(100)	(39)	(105)	(37)	(100)
Michigan	49	107	63	106	43	96	38	103	34	92
Ohio	39	85	44 59	88 118	43 47	96 104	32 38	86 103	29 35	78 95
Indiana Illinois	39 43	8 5	51	102	42	93	37	100	39	105
Wisconsin	49	107	72	144	61	113	49	132	48	130
Plains	(47)	(102)	(56)	(112)	(58)	(129)	(51)	(138)	(49)	(132)
Minnesota	44	86 103	58 80	116 120	60 56	133 124	50 47	135 127	62 42	141 114
lowa Missouri	47 33	72	4G	80	38	84	30	81	30	81
North Dakota	39	85	48	96	59	131	61	165	78	211
South Dakota	60	130	70	140	70	156	60	162	66	149
Nebraska	59	128	59	118	67 55	149 122	53 56	143 161	44	119 118
Kanses Southeast	47 (25)	102 (64)	54 (27)	108 (54)	(27)	(60)	(24)	(65)	(24)	(65)
Virginia	31	67	31	62	28	62	24	65	17	46
West Virginia	21	46	25	50	27	60	18	49	25	88
Kentucky	21	46	23	46	26	58	28 24	78 65	30 28	81 76
Tennassea	27 26	69 67	29 28	58 56	28 26	62 58	23	82	22	59
North Carolina South Carolina	26	54	26	52	20	44	20	54	24	85
Georgia	35	76	33	66	30	67	25	68	22	59
Florida	35	76	38	76	42	83	30	81	31	84
Alabama	12	26	15 28	30 56	17 31	38 69	15 30	41 81	17 31	- 46 84
Mississippi Louisiana	26 19	57 41	27	54	24	53	22	59	27	73
Arkansas	23	50	25	50	26	58	23	62	18	49
Southwest	(35)	(76)	(38)	(76)	(40)	(89)	(32)	(86)	(31)	(84)
Oklahoma	24	62 85	29 42	58 84	34 41	76 91	28 25	78 95	30	81 84
Texas New Mexico	39	48	26	52	26	58	21	67	27	73
Arizona	55	120	54	108	58	129	42	114	35	95
Rocky Mountain	(50)	(109)	(54)	(108)	(56)	(124)	(48)	(130)	(44)	(118)
Montana	84	139	74	148 88	65 44	144 98	57 47	154 127	67 42	154 114
idaho Wyoming	37 63	80 137	44 59	118	69	163	48	130	38	103
Colorado	49	107	51	102	54	120	47	127	46	124
Utah	37	80	43	85	50	111	41	111	38	103
Far West ¹	(50)	(109)	(56)	(112)	(48)	(107)	(37)	(100) 70	(29)	(78) 64
Washington	38 58	83 126	47 62	94 124	35 5 2	78 116	26 44	118	31	84
Oregon Navada	45	89	44	88	44	88	34	92	32	86
California	65	141	72	144	62	138	44	119	33	89
Alaska	135	293	25	50	23	51	(12)	(32)	N.A.	N.A. N.A.
Hawail	24	52	27	64	27	60	(15)	(41)	N.A.	N.A.

Source: Compiled by ACIR staff from various reports of U.S. Bureau of the Cansus, Governments Division.

As shown in Fig. 1, farm property taxes as a percentage of farm values has remained almost constant for a long period. Table 16 shows that in Illinois, property taxes as a percentage of farm net income is lower in recent years than in most of the 1960s.

TABLE 16

Illinois Farm Property Taxes as a Percentage of Farm Net Income,

Selected Years

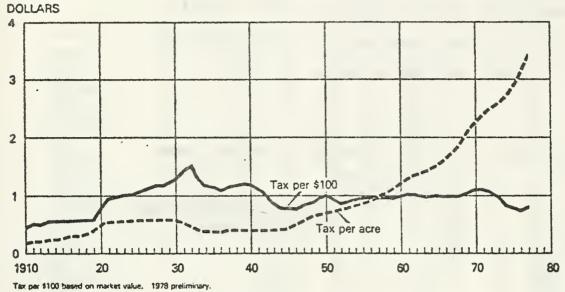
		Fa.rm	Property	Taxes	as	Percentage
Yea	r		of Far	m Net	Inc	ome ·
196	2			12.4		
196	4			14.7		
196	6			11.7		
196	8			17.8		
197	0			19.6		
197	1			17.5		
197	2			14.9		
197	'3			7.6		
197	4			11.1		
197	'5			8.3		
197	6			13.0		

Source: H.G. Halcrow, et. al., <u>Illinois Farm Property Taxes in</u> the 1980s, (mimeo., Urbana, 1979).

Furthermore, there was no overall shift toward the taxes regarded as least fair. There was a slight shift away from the property tax, the levy consistently regarded as the worst (Table 17), and some shift from the motor fuel tax, regarded as the most acceptable, to the other levies, but on the whole the changes were not significant. Table 16 also indicates that there was no sharp increase in dislike of the property tax, and that the property tax is far more unpopular in the west than elsewhere - despite the high property taxes in much of New England.

Fig. 1

FARM REAL ESTATE TAXES



Source: U.S.D.A., Handbook of Agricultural Charts, Agricultural Handbook 551, November 1978.

Table 1
Which Do You Think is the Worst Tax—

		Percent	nt of Total U.S. Public				
	May 1978	May 1977	May 1975	April 1974	May 1973		
Federal Income Tax	30%	28%	28%	30%	30%		
State Income Tax	11	11	11	10	10		
State Sales Tax	18	17	23	20	20		
Local Property Tax	32	33	29	28	31		
Don't Know	10	11	10	14	11		
For additional detail see pages 8 and 32.							

That is, the Least Fair?

Table 1a

Which Do You Think is the Worst Tax— That is, the Least Fair? (May 1978)

	Percent of				
	Total U.S. Public	North- east	North- Central	South	West
Federal Income Tax	30%	25%	34%	33%	23%
State Income Tax	11	18	11	6	11
State Sales Tax	18	21	15	19	19
Local Property Tax	32	27	35	27	44
Don't Know/No Answer	10	9	7	17	5

Reproduced from Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Changing Public Attitudes on Governments and Taxes, 1978,p.1 There were, however, certain changes in taxes that were adversely affecting various people. At the Federal level, and to a lesser extent at the state level, inflation was pushing persons into higher tax brackets and increasing their tax liabilities when their real incomes were not rising. At the same time, social security payroll taxes have been rising - the only type of levy in the United States that has risen significantly in the recent years. These are not state-local levies - but nevertheless produce reactions against taxes generally. Adjustments in the tax structure in general offset much of these increases for the lower income groups - but there was no equivalent offset for the large numbers of middle income voters.

In addition, in some states, and particularly California, some homeowners experienced very rapid increases in property taxes, as house values rose much more rapidly than the general price level and assessments kept pace with increased values - by no means a universal phenomenon nationally.

All in all, however, changes in taxes can hardly explain the massive change in attitude that appears to have occurred toward state-local taxes. Other forces must be explored.

Inflation? It is clear that the great majority of the population regard inflation as the number one problem facing the economy. A portion of the population - perhaps a quarter - has been actually injured by inflation because their incomes have lagged behind inccreases in the cost of living. Older, retired persons are the most obvious but other fixed income receivers are also injured. Most of the population clearly is not adversely affected; incomes have kept up

with the cost of living, and values of typical assets have risen even more rapidly. The evidence for this is that per capita real incomes have risen, though slowly (there was a decline in 1975). But many persons see only one side of the picture; they intensely dislike the increasing cost of living - without recognizing that their incomes have kept pace, or more than kept pace.

Accompanying this hatred of inflation is the very widespread conviction that inflation results from government deficits. The states as a whole have run a surplus in recent year. But, unable to hit the deficit spender, the Federal government directly, the voters hit at anything in reach — and this means states and local governments when they have the opportunity.

Dissatisfaction with Government Efficiency and Government Services?

Another element is the widespread belief that all levels of government are inefficient and corrupt and do not provide high quality service. Many families are critical of the education their children receive, and complain about too many "frills." Others are disturbed at the inability of the police to stop large scale crime, especially in metropolitan areas, and believe that criminals are coddled. Watergate, G.S.A., and comparable patterns on the part of some state and local officials further the view that corruption is widespread. The belief that government services could be provided at half the present cost is nonsensical — but it is widely accepted.

In addition, voters in many cities are unhappy with the effects of unionization of municipal and employees and teachers. Strikes of school teachers, policemen and firemen are repugnant, as a matter

A California survey suggests that the vote for Proposition 13 did not reflect significant hostility to the school system. "Public Opinion and Proposition 13," Finance Facts, published by Education Finance Center, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Special Issue, Feb., 1979.

of principle, to many, and the inconvenience resulting from closed schools magnifies this attitude. There is little doubt that unions in some cities have pushed wages of certain types of municipal employees above those in the private sector for comparable work — quite the reverse of a few decades ago. And the noncompromising attitudes of some union leaders in these fields have aggravated the attitudes. A portion of the vote for Proposition 13 sought to teach the public employees a lesson — that the taxpayers have the final say, after all. In Canada, the imposition of wage and price controls was designed more to keep the pay of government employees in line than to control the wages in the private sector.

There is well known and long standing concern with the welfare programs - the belief that there is extensive chiselling and that the programs give recipients incentives not to work. And there is still a minority of the population that believes that the appropriate solution for the low income groups is to send them over the hill to the poor house.

The problems with AMTRAK and CONRAIL and BART (Bay Area Rapid Transit) have furthered the belief that governments never do anything well, while the public forgets about the gross mismanagement of Penn Central and the current financial problems of Chrysler, Kentucky Fried Chicken, and A&P.

Irritating Regulatory Policies? Another element has been the introduction in the last decade of a number of regulatory measures which, while having justification and support, irritate many persons. Different ones irritate different persons - but combined, the effects

are not negligible. Only a few examples - some perhaps petty - can be noted. The 55 mile an hour speed limit is one. However significant the gains in lessening accidents and saving fuel may be, many drivers feel that it is an unreasonable restriction on their freedom. Mandatory helmet laws for motorcycle riders create similar resentment. Pollution controls have been a source of tribulation to many firms and have resulted in some instances in loss of employment. No matter how strongly persons favor pollution control in principle, they are resentful if the measures result in loss of jobs. Anyone who has had the experience of being stranded in a remote community with a car taking only unleaded gas when the gas stations have no such gas is hardly sympathetic to this regulation. Similarly, anyone who has struggled in the middle of the night with an aspirin bottle cap that will not come off does not look with favor upon the government action that requires child-proof caps. Many persons quite legitimately feel that many such rules are issued without regard to the costs as compared to the benefits - that bureaucrats become obsessed with the particular change and do not consider the cost side at all. The auto interlock mechanism is perhaps the prime example.

There has also been widespread belief that long standing regulatory policies of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Civil Aeronautics Board have been primarily concerned with protection of the industries and not of the public and have led to wasteful empty truck movements and excessively high air fares and at the same time have not prevented deterioration of the railroads.

Minority Rights? A basic rule for the satisfactory functioning of a democratic society is that while the majority must rule, the rights of minorities must be protected. For a long period this second rule was violated, at least as far as certain minorities were concerned. The last two decades have seen great progress in the improvement of their position. And probably the great majority of the population regards this as a desirable change, regarding improvement of the position of minorities as a public good. But in the process obviously many individuals have felt harmed by the procedures and programs. There is always a basic issue of just how far the majority is willing to go in improving the position of minorities. In the end the will of the majority must prevail, and if it temporarily is prevented from doing so by institutional factors, the result is a backlash against government generally, including taxes. And the absolute rights position taken by some minority groups increases the danger of this type of backlash.

Several examples will illustrate the argument. Attempts to ensure equal treatment of women, Blacks, and other minorities have resulted in a very substantial amount of paper work for business firms and universities, some of which appears to be highly unproductive in the attainment of the objectives. The line between increased minority participation and outright quotas is a very fine one, as witnessed by the Bakke case and many persons object to the principle of quotas. Universities, schools and government agencies alike feel that at times they are caught in a cross fire of conflicting priorities — veterans vs minorities, for example — and this has led to the Sears suit. Busing for school integration has been highly unpopular with many

families who fear deterioration of schooling for their children and dislike the long bus rides that may result. Not all this opposition to busing reflects dislike of integration of schools, per se, as it did initially in the south.

In the field of women's rights, changes in terminology to avoid obviously sexist implications are generally accepted, but other changes have proved to be amonging to many and to result in awkward grammar. To many persons the word "chairperson" is very irritating. And the Federal government has virtually come to blows with the commercial fishing industy over its insistance that fishermen are to be called "fishers."

Finally, some actions and proposals of governments in the interests of minority rights appear to be ridiculous - involving very large costs for very little benefit. The extrans case is the proposed requirement that all public transportation facilities be equipped to handle wheel chairs. The lost is estimated to be \$8 billion or more and with some older rapid transit systems the physical problems are almost insurmountable. This morely cannot come from transit users, since the transit systems cannot cover costs as it is and provide desired service; it must come from the tempayer. The popular reaction is aggravated by the desistance of some leaders of the handicapped groups that the right to use all transfort vehicles is an absolute right and colds are not relevant - even if costs took the entire Federal budget. It is estimated that equipping the new Washington Metro so that it can be used by the handicapped costs \$2,000 per ride of wheelchair users. To many, including many handicapped, there are far more efficient ways of providing mobility.

Universities and colleges are subject to similar requirements by
the Federal government - but no Federal money is provided for the purpose.
It is important, by common consent, that some colleges and universities
be available to the handicapped, but there is little justification, as
seen by many persons, that all facilities be so adapted.

Obviously not all persons are affected by all of these irritations. But the total number of persons affected by various ones is obviously substantial — and without question a source of taxpayer revolt — a reaction against financing activities that produce the irritations.

In summary: it could be argued that in a sense the voters as a whole have come to conclude that the benefits from public goods, from adjusting for externalities, from redistribution of income are not as great as they anticipated they would be. Alternatively it may be argued that the voters have come to conclude that legislative bodies have gotten out of hand; by log rolling and pork barreling they have pushed programs beyond the limits the majority of society make. But both of these statements are simplistic; much of the anti-tax sentiment has little to do with taxes per se. The votes are votes against inflation and irritating regulations and government actions, not just against taxes.

The Dangers of the Taxpayer Revolt

One of the greatest dangers of the revolt is irrational behavior,

- voter reaction against government becoming so strong, especially

when fed by skillful proponents of lower taxes, that it produces

results that are not rational in terms of the considered preferences

of the voters. Their reactions are much like yanking the telephone off the wall in response to reaching a wrong number or smashing a door open when the lock is sticking.

Proposition 13 provides a good example of irrationality. First. one of the chief beneficiaries was the U.S. Treasury, since state taxes are deductable for Federal income taxes. The result is a transfer of perhaps a billion dollars of real income from Californians to the rest of the country annually. Secondly, a very large portion of the tax savings went to business firms, and much of this to large firms. The Wall Street Journal reports that of the total of \$6.4 billion tax cut only \$2.3 billion went to homeowners (and much of this was lost through higher income tax payments), \$1.2 billion to landlords, and \$2.9 billion to business. For example, the Journal reports tax savings of \$47 million to Standard Oil of California, \$12 million to Getty 0il, \$20 million to the Southern Pacific Railroad, \$10 million to Atlantic Richfield and at least this much to two other oil companies that will not release their data. Furthermore the Journal reports that many firms have not been passing the tax savings forward to consumers. The public utilities did - but much of the gain went to large industrial customers.

While tax savings to business firms obviously offer some advantages, it is hard to believe that the California voters really would rationally seek to aid Standard Oil to the extent of nearly \$50 million dollars a year.

¹Feb. 13, 1979.

Proposition 13 contains another provision that has potential for serious nuisance and economic distortion: the rule that assessments of property cannot be raised until the property is transferred. Such a rule is irrational by any standards, and will encourage freezing of property in the hands of the present owners, as well as creating numerous interpretative questions.

A significant example of irresponsible behavior on the part of state legislatures reacting to the tampayer revolt is their endorsement of the calling of a constitution convention to provide for the requirement of an annually balanced Federal budget. It is believed that such a convention can consider other matters as well, and could easily end up in a battle over abortion and ERA, for example, rather than over the Federal budget. Such a straight jacket amendment would render effective fiscal policy impossible and is irrational from the standpoint of the states because they would almost certainly be the first losers - revenue sharing would be the first budget item to be eliminated. The proposal is based upon the assumption that the Federal deficit is the source of inflation, a widely held view that is almost certainly incorrect. The deficit is far too small as a percentage of total spending in the economy to have any significant effect - it is equal to about 1.5% of GNP.

Quite apart from irrationality, there are some serious objections to the meat-axe tax reductions that Proposition 13 and similar measures produce. One is the drastic cutting of "unprotected" services. The initial impact in California appears to have been on libraries and parks. One tendency is to freeze state and local employee wages

and welfare payments. The former causes loss in personnel and in wrale, the latter, inequity by usual standards. The more moderate proposals in other states do not have this "meat axe" effect.

Secondly, the movement is leading to constitutional requirements for two thirds or similar requirements to raise taxes. Such a rule substitutes minority rule for majority rule; while there may be some merit at times for requirements in excess of a majority, it is hard to believe that tax increases constitute one of them. Sixty-six percent of the population of a state may strongly favor increased expenditures for various purposes and is willing to vote higher taxes to pay for them - but the 34 percent minority opposing can block the change to externity. One voter in opposition equals 2 votes in favor - a violation of the one man vote rule if there ever was.

A further underivable consequence is the potential effect of the sentering of the artack upon the property tax in leading to drastic reductions in this lavy. A property tax with adequate circuit breaker provisions to protect the poor and improved administration has significant advantages. It is the only tax from which school districts can effectively raise large sums of money and thus maintain some final-cial autonomy. It is the only means by which local governments can obtain substantial tax revenue from outside-owned business firms gaining large benefits from the local community. Properly designed, it is not seriously regressive. It avoids the potential adverse effects of the marginal income tax rates affecting additional income earned. Any sharp reduction in property taxes will almost certainly raise property values, concentrating the gain in the hands

of those persons owning property at the time of the reduction and making it more difficult for young couples to purchase homes and young farmers to acquire farms. The alternatives - higher sales and state income taxes - are not without their own disadvantages.

An anomaly of the California tax action is that it greatly reduces the financial autonomy of the local units, shifting power to the states and likely leading to increasing demands on Washington. Yet the local units are the ones in which voters have greatest direct control, and this shift is completely contrary to the principles of the conservatives who support tax revolts.

The Implications for Education

A recent survey in California by the Education Finance Center of the Education Commission of the States suggests that education was not a major target of the affirmative votes for Proposition 13. Interviews of some 1,049 persons showed the public schools were second only to police and fire departments as categories that the persons did not wish cut back. Welfare was by far the category most favored for cutback, followed by child day care and recreation and parks. But nevertheless the general anti-tax sentiment which Proposition 13 reflects has serious potential consequences for schools. The attack is aimed more directly at the property tax than at any other levy and of course, despite the relative increase in state funding, this levy remains the chief source of school financing. Further increases

^{1&}quot;Public Opinion and Proposition 13, Attitudes of Californians toward Education and the Implementation of Proposition 13", Finance Facts, Special Issue, Feb. 1979.

in state funding can be obtained, in any magnitude, only by higher state taxes or taking of funds from other state activities. The taxpayer revolt will make the former increasingly difficult, and the other activities have their strong supporters. The lag in motor fuel levies, for example, by resulting in deteriorating highways, increases the pressure to quit using highway funds for auxilliary activities such as state police and to use general revenue funds for road use. Thus education is almost certain to suffer; the California survey noted above shows summer schools and interscholastic sports to be the ones most favored for cuts, followed by music, art and drama, adult education, and physical education, and administrative expense.

The greater symmpathy for education than for many other functions, however, and the recognition that improved education aids economic development of a state and thus the flow of tax revenue may result in special measures to protect education against the overall cuts - but this can occur only by increased state financing. Along with the increased state financing is certain to go increased control over the schools by the states.

The Future

The California revolt was obviously facilitated by several special circumstances. The most important was the very large state surplus of about \$5 billion. Secondly, property values had been rising rapidly and assessments were keeping up with them, with little change in tax rates. It was reported that in 1978, the average increase in assessed values of homes was 120%. Thirdly, it can be argued that California voters are politically particularly volatile.

In most other states the situation is different. Several states do have surpluses - Washington, Wisconsin, and Texas, for example. But the states as a whole do not have any significant surpluses, so that unlike California, the cutbacks at the local level cannot be averted for a year or so by distribution of state surpluses. In many states, property tax bills have not been rising substantially, and usually not at all in real terms. But the bandwagon effect is significant; the Wall Street Journal reports that governors have proposed an overall tax revenue cutback of more than \$5 billion in 1979-80 budgets. The Journal indicates that 36 states will consider amendments to their constitutions and other measures to restrict statelocal spending. In addition, many states are consideraing reductions in various taxes, and particularly the property tax. Many of the proposals are relatively innocuous, some merely designed to distribute surpluses built up from rapidly rising income tax yields. Some have positive merits, such as exemption of medicines and industrial machinery from state sales taxes. But others go much farther, some freezing property taxes at existing levels - a measure that has very little justification because of changing relative property values. In many states, of course, there are no direct initiative and referendum measures, and voters can restrict legislative powers only through constitutional amendments, a much slower process. But governors and legislature can act quickly if they wish.

¹Feb. 16, 1979.

Conclusion

The hazards of the tax revolt for education as well as for other basic state and local government functions are obvious. How serious they will prove to be remains to be seen. The bandwagon is rolling at full tilt, politicians leaping on at each opportunity. But the bandwagon may overturn — as the consequences of drastic tax reduction become apparent in reduced services that people want and the loss of competent personnel. In a paper given at the 1978 Annual Conference of the Canadian Tax Foundation, Richard Musgrave offered serveral suggestions to lessen the dangers. The following to some extent parallel his, but by no means fully:

- 1. Avoid sharp increases in property tax assessments. However meritorious the policy that assessments should keep pace with property values may be in principle, it can be disastrous politically.
- 2. Take measures to offset automatic increases in tax yields that run well in excess of inflationary trends. The simplest solution is to index the state income tax.
- 3. Replace specific rate levies by ad valorem levies. It is very doubtful that the voters as a whole have preferred that the tobacco, and liquor and motor fuel taxes, the ones most widely accepted, decline for a decade in real terms but this has occurred.
- 4. Avoid state surpluses of any substantial magnitude.
- 5. Do not facilitate initiative and referendum measures at the state level, even though these appear to be "democratic".

They lend themselves to demagoguery; they prevent coalitions that compromise and balance the interests of various groups; they lead to irrationality; they encourage single-issue voting.

- annoyances; balance benefits and costs of various regulatory measures; and ensure that the appropriate protection of the rights of minorities does not go so far as to produce serious backlash. In the end the majority will must prevail and there are no absolute rights in this world.
- 7. Given the obvious sympathy of votes for education over most other state-local functions, seek to protect it against the meat axe by special allocated funding at the state level.

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of Personal Income, by State, 1977

81. · ·

Taxes	Char	ges	
Alaska		Rhode Island	
New York		Georgia	XXXXX
Wyoming		Maine	
Minnesota	XXXXXX	ldaho .	KO ČO ČO ČO Č
Vermont		New Jersey	XXXXXXX
California		Dist. of Col.	80000000
New Mexico	**************************************	Kansas	
North Dakota	**************************************	Oklahoma	
Arizona		South Carolina	
Wisconsin		Kentucky	
Hawaii		Alabama	
Montana	**************************************	West Virginia	
Oregon	XXXXXX	Florida	
Massachusetts		Connecticut	
Nevada	20000000 200000000	Pennsylvania	
Colorado		Tennessee	
South Dakota		Texas	88888
Nebraska		Illinois	
Louisiana		North Carolina	
Michigan	\$\$\$\$\$\$\$\$ # 1	Virginia	800000
Washington		New Hampshire	
Utah	******	Indiana	*****
Mississippi	*******	Arkansas	80008
Maryland	\$0000000000000000000000000000000000000	Ohio	XXXXX
Delaware	********	Missouri	******
lowa	********	U.S. Average	
(0 50 100 150 200 250 300 35 Dollars don US Bureau of the Census Gavernment		0 50 100 150 200 250 300 35 Dollars

Source: ACIR staff, based on U.S. Bureau of the Censua, Governmental Finances in 1976-77









